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ABSTRACT

This learning module is designed to provide the prospective teacher of English as second language with a contrastive overview of the syntactic structures of Spanish and English and to enable him to: (a) state the English language patterns that are difficult for a Puerto Rican Spanish-speaker, (b) explain the specific causes for indications of native language interference; (c) design teaching activities based on specific linguistic contrasts, and (d) evaluate self-prepared activities in terms of an effective strategy. Required and optional enabling activities consist of readings, exercises, video tape viewing, and seminar attendance. Pre- and post-assessment instruments are included in the module. (HMD)

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TEACHER CORPS BILINGUAL PROJECT
UNIVERSITY OF HARTFORD
WEST HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT
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MODULAR SEQUENCE:
ENGLISH AS A SECOND LANGUAGE
METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

TTP 001.06 MORPHOLOGY: TEACHING ENGLISH STRUCTURES TO SPANISH SPEAKERS

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SP008 312

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION
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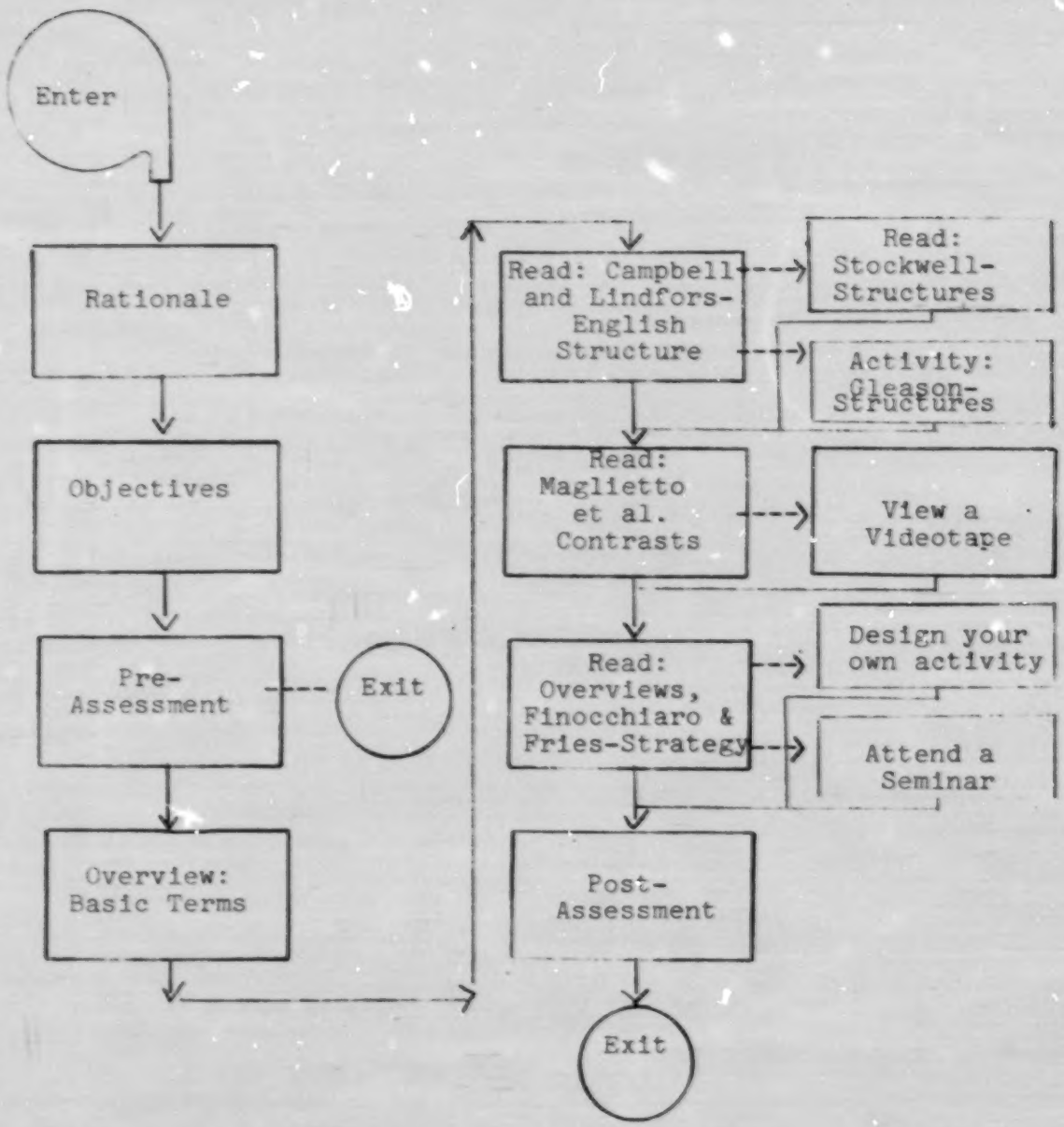
TEACHING ENGLISH STRUCTURES TO
PUERTO RICAN SPANISH-SPEAKERS



RATIONALE

Many ESL teachers are native speakers of Spanish or have learned Spanish as a foreign language. While they may remember the experience of overcoming their own problems in learning the new language, the knowledge they may have gathered from their learning experiences is not absolute in determining the problems their students may have in second-language learning.

Necessary as experience in teaching and skillful control of the language are to the teacher of English to speakers of Spanish, these alone are not sufficient to prepare him to meet head-on the obstinate persistence of Spanish speech habits in the production of English sentences by Spanish-speaking students. A fundamental knowledge of the contrasting features of both languages is essential for the ESL teacher.

This unit of work will provide the participant with a contrastive overview of the syntactic structures of Spanish and English. It is designed to complement the unit of work on the teaching of English sounds to Spanish speakers.

OBJECTIVES

Given a series of learning activities on the contrastive morpho-syntactic structures of English and Spanish, the participant will be able to:

- -state the English language patterns difficult for a Puerto Rican Spanish-speaker.
- -explain the specific causes for indications of native language interference.
- -design teaching activities based on specific linguistic contrasts.
- -evaluate self-prepared activities in terms of an effective strategy.

PRE-ASSESSMENT

To assess your prior mastery of the terminal objectives of this unit of work, complete the following exercise. Your performance on this assessment will determine which learning tasks you are to perform.

Directions: Answer the following questions according to the directions noted in each:

I. The sentences below were produced by a Puerto Rican Spanish-speaker who is learning ESL. Explain in a single sentence the probable source of the interference indicated:

A. No come here

B. Is Monday.

C. The girl pretty ...

D. Pedro no is here.

E. I have thirst.

II. Prepare an essay noting the English language patterns that are difficult for a Puerto Rican Spanish-speaker.

III. Enumerate in outline form the basic elements of an effective strategy for correcting specific linguistic interference.

IV. Design a teaching activity based on structural contrasts between English and Spanish. Evaluate this activity in terms of your outline of an effective strategy.

OVERVIEW: BASIC TERMS

MORPHOLOGY

Morphemes are generally short sequences of phonemes. Some morphemes can be described as the smallest meaningful units in the structure of a language. If this unit is divided, the meaning is altered or destroyed. One example of a morpheme in English is the plural morpheme (-s), which has several forms:

Ex: glasses - /-iz/
books - /-s/
cows - /-z/

Although the morpheme has these different forms, they have the same meaning = plural.

Morphemes vary from language to language, thus causing problems for the second-language learner.

SYNTAX

This aspect of a language deals with the patterns or arrangements of words in phrases and sentences and the matters of agreement among words. The fact that "Are we going?" and "We are going" state different ideas is due to syntax. The syntax of a language controls the order of the elements in a sentence. In Spanish, the adjective goes after the noun it modifies: "el patio

grande." Similarly, it is a matter of syntax that in Spanish "nose", "la nariz," takes a feminine article and in French, it takes a masculine article, "le nez."

CONTRASTIVE LINGUISTICS

This science is of special interest to the language teacher since it tries to present an analytic contrast between languages. By presenting the existing similarities and differences between languages, a basis is created to prepare effective language teaching material for the correction of language students.

I. Required:

A. Complete the following:

Campbell, Russell N. and Judith W. Lindfors, Insights Into English Structure: A Programmed Course (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1969), pp. 103-130, 142-152.

B. Read:

Lois B. Maglietto et al, "Language Patterns: A Comparison of English and Spanish," English as a Second Language Curriculum Guide (Hartford, Conn: Hartford Public Schools, N.D.), pp. 7-29.

Activity: Design three teaching activities based on structural contrasts between English and Spanish.

C. Read:

1. Attached overviews entitled "Strategy" and "Pattern Drills for Language Teaching and Remediation."

2. Mary Finocchiaro, English as a Second Language: From Theory to Practice (New York: Simon and Schuster, Inc., 1964), "Basic Practice Activities."

3. Charles C. Fries, Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language (Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press, 1945), pp. 27-37.

D. Activity: Outline the basic elements of an effective strategy for teaching English patterns. Evaluate the activities you prepared for #B in terms of your outline and make any necessary revisions.

II. Optional:

A. Read:

Robert P. Stockwell, et al. The Grammatical Structures of English and Spanish (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1965), passim.

B. Read:

H.A. Gleason, Jr., Workbook in Descriptive Linguistics (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1955), p.47.

Complete the activities as instructed.

C. View a video-tape of an ESL lesson. What indications of native-language interference are you able to detect in student responses?

D. Design your own learning activity.

E. Attend a seminar as scheduled by your module coordinator.

POST-ASSESSMENT

Directions: Answer the following questions according to the directions noted in each:

I. The sentences below were produced by a Puerto Rican Spanish-speaker who is learning ESL. Explain in a single sentence the probable source of the interference indicated:

A. No come here.

B. Is Monday.

C. The girl pretty ...

D. Pedro no is here.

E. I have thirst.

II. Prepare an essay noting the English language patterns that are difficult for a Puerto Rican Spanish-speaker.

III. Enumerate in outline form the basic elements of an effective strategy for correcting specific linguistic interference.

IV. Design a teaching activity based on structural contrasts between English and Spanish. Evaluate this activity in terms of your outline of an effective strategy.

Competency will be certified when your module coordinator has ascertained that the submitted post-assessment is of acceptable quality.

Remediation: Alternate learning activities are available on a contractual basis with the module coordinator.

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LANGUAGE PATTERNS

A Comparison of English and Spanish

Sentence Structure

1. The book is here. (noun subject)
   El libro está aquí.
   The book is here.
   (same in English and Spanish)

2. My house is big. (possessive adjective)
   Mi casa es grande.
   My house is big.
   (same)

3. This is my father. (demonstrative pronoun)
   Este es mi papá.
   This is my father.
   (same)

4. The house is near the school. (preposition)
   La casa está cerca de la escuela.
   The house is near by the school.
   (same)

5. The girl sang and danced.
   La muchacha cantó y bailó.
   The girl sang and danced.
   (same)

6. Where does the girl live? (interrogative words)
   ¿Donde vive la niña?
   (In Spanish - Where live the girl?)

7. The boy gave the book to her. (direct object)
   El muchacho le dió el libro.
   (In Spanish - The boy (to her) gave the book.)

8. It is round. (expressed pronoun)
Es redondo.
Is round. (pronoun subject not expressed in Spanish)

9. Mary is not here. ("not" to express negative)
María no está aquí.
Mary no is here. ("no" in pre-verb position)

10. This table is bigger. (base form of adjective plus "er" for comparative)
Esta mesa es más grande.
This table is more big. (more before adjective)

11. This table is the biggest. (superlative)
Esta mesa es el más grande.
This table is the most big. (most before adjective)

12. Do not run. (negative command)
No corras.
No corra.
No corran. (no before forms of verb)

13. She is a student. (article after verb "to be")
Ella es estudiante.
She is student. (no article in Spanish)

14. My hair is red. (possessive adjective)
El pelo es rojo.
The hair is red. (no possessive adjective)

15. Miss Smith is here. (no definite article with titles)
La señorita Smith está aquí.
The Miss Smith is here. (definite aritcle is used in Spanish)

16. The ball is in the box.
I live on Main Street. (prepositions)
I live at 20 Main Street.
La bola está en la caja. ("en" for "in", "on" and "at")
The ball is in the box.
Yo vivo en la calle Main.
I live in the street Main.
Yo vivo en el 20 de la calle Main.
I live in the 20 of the street Main.

17. I am hungrey. (use of verb "to be")
Yo tengo hambre.
I have hunger. (use verb "to have")

18. It is warm. ("to be")
Hace calor.
Makes warm. (verb "to make" - no subject)

19. There was an accident. ("there" - subject filler)
Hubo un accidente.
Was an accident. (no subject)

20. Is the boy here? (inversion of subject and verb)
¿Está el muchacho aqui?
Is the boy here? (same)

21. Do the girls study? (structural words "do", "does" and "did")
¿Las muchachas estudian?
The girls study? (no structural word)

22. This is John's father. ('s for indication of ownership)
Este es el papá de Juan. (phrase modifier)
This is the father of John.

23. I see it. (direct pronoun object after verb)
Yo lo veo.
I it see. (in pre-verb position)

24. This is the big, new house. (two adjectives in pre-noun position)
Esta es la casa grande y nueva.
This is the house big and new. (in post-noun position)

25. Is the house big? (adjective in post-subject position)
¿Es grande la casa?
Is big the house? (adjective after verb)

Other Comparisons

1. a book (articles in pre-noun position)

Un libro	unos libros
a book (same)	the books (articles agree in gender and number with noun)

2. this book (demonstrative adjective)
   este libro (same)
   this book

3. two books (adjective in pre-noun position)
   dos libros (same but agree in number and gender with noun)
   two books

4. the first book (adjective occurs in pre-noun position)
   el primer libro
   the first book (same but agree in number and gender with noun)

5. very big (intensifiers in pre-adjective position)
   muy grande
   very big (same)

6. the door of the room (phrase modifier in post-noun position)
   la puerta del salón
   the door of the room (same)

7. the door and the window ("and" and "or" between words of same category)
   la puerta y la ventana
   the door and the window (same)

8. the big dog (adjective before noun)
   el perro grande (adjective after noun)
   the dog big

9. The children played ball. (use of suffix "ed")
   Los niños jugaron a la pelota. (no suffix - inflected endings)
   The children played (with) the ball.
   action

10. The boy will play. ("will" plus verb for future tense)
    El muchacho jugará. (no auxiliary - inflections added to infinitive)
    The boy will play.

11. I am going to sing. ("to be" plus "going to" to express future)
    Yo voy a cantar. ("go" plus "to")
    I go to sing.

12. I am painting now. ("to be" plus "-ing" for present progressive)
Yo pinto ahora.
I paint now. (Spanish uses both present and present progressive)
Yo estoy pintando ahora.
I am painting now.

Stress In Spanish

1. The last syllable is stressed if the word ends in a consonant other than n or s.

ciudad - city

2. The next to the last syllable is stressed if the word ends in a vowel or n or s.

amigo - friend

3. Otherwise, the accent mark will denote the stressed syllable.

inglés - English; teléfono - telephone

Punctuation

Spanish punctuation is similar to English. Some differences are:

1. Exclamation and question marks precede as well as follow the sentence.

¿Adónde va usted? - Where are you going?
¡Qué hermoso día! - What a beautiful day!

2. The question mark is placed before the question part of the sentence.

Juan, ¿a dónde vas? - John, where are you going?

3. Dashes are often used where English uses quotation marks.

—Muchas gracias - dijo. - "Thanks a lot," he said.

4. Capitals are not used so frequently as in English. They are used only at the beginning of sentences and with proper nouns.

   Adjectives of nationality, the days of the week and the months of the year are not capitalized.

   Somos americanos. - We're Americans.
   Hoy es el primero de febrero. - Today is the first of February.

5. Suspension points (...) are used more frequently than in English to indicate interruption, hesitation, e

Some Orthographic Signs

1. The tilde (~) is used over the letter n to indicate the sound of ni in onion or ny in canyon.

2. The diaeresis (¨) is used over u in the combination gu when it is pronounced gw even though it occurs before e or i.

   paragüero - umbrella man

The Definite and Indefinite Articles

Definite	Singular	Plural
Masculine	el	los
Feminine	la	las
Indefinite	**Singular**	**Plural**
Masculine	un	unos
Feminine	una	unas

1. El is used before a feminine noun beginning with stressed a (or ha).

   el agua - the water
   But
   las aguas - the waters
   el hacha - the axe
   But
   las hachas - the axes

2. The neuter article lo is used before parts of speech other than nouns when they are used as nouns.

   lo malo - What is bad, the bad part of it.

3. The definite article is used:

   a. with abstract nouns

      La verdad vale más que las riquezas. - Truth is worth more than riches.

   b. with nouns referring to a class

      los soldados - soldiers

   c. with names of languages (except immediately after hablar or en)

      Escribo el español. - I write Spanish.
      But
      Hablo español. - I speak Spanish.

   d. in expression of time

      la una - one o'clock
      las dos - two o'clock

   e. for the days of the week

      el lunes próximo - next Monday

   f. for the year, seasons, etc.

      el año 1945 - the year 1945
      la primavera - spring

   g. with certain geographical names

      El Brasil - Brazil

h. with parts of the body and articles of clothing

Me duele la cabeza. - My head hurts.
Quítese el abrigo. - Take your coat off.

4. The indefinite article

a. Unos (unas) is often used where we use some or a few in English

unos días - a few days

b. The indefinite article is omitted

(1) before rank, profession, trade, nationality, etc.

Soy capitán. - I'm a captain.
Soy norteamericano. - I'm an American.

(2) before ciento (or cien) - hundred; cierto - certain; mil - thousand

cien hombres - a hundred men
cierto hombre - a certain man

(3) in various idiomatic expressions, such as

Salió sin sombrero. He left without a hat.

Contractions

1. de + el = del - of (from) the
del hermano - from (of) the brother

2. a + el = al - to the
al padre - to the father

Days of the Week and Months of the Year

1. The names of the days of the week and months of the year are masculine and are not capitalized.

2. The article is usually necessary, with the days of the week, except after ser (to be).

el domingo - Sunday
Mañana es sábado. - Tomorrow is Saturday.
Van a visitarlos el domingo. - They're going to visit them on Sunday.
Notice that on Sunday is el domingo.

3. Names of the months of the year are usually used without the definite article.

enero - January

The Names of the Seasons

Usually not capitalized.

Preceded by the definite article but after de and en the article may or may not be used.

Hace frio en (el) invierno. - It's cold in (the) winter.

la primavera - spring (feminine)

Masculine and Feminine

el padre - the father; la madre - the mother

The masculine plural of certain nouns stands for both genders.

los padres - the parents

1. Masculine nouns and adjectives usually end in o; feminine in a

Common exceptions: la mano - the hand; la radio - the radio

2. Nouns ending in r, n, and l are generally masculine.

el calor - the heat; el pan - the bread; el sol - the sun

3. Names of trees, days of the week, months, oceans, rivers, mountains and other parts of speech used as nouns are generally masculine.

4. Feminine nouns

a. Nouns ending in a, dad, tad, tud, ción, sión, ez, umbre, ie are usually feminine.

Common exceptions: el día - the day; el mapa - the map; el drama - the drama; el clima - the climate; el problema - the problem; el poeta - the

b. Names of cities, towns and fruits are feminine.

Certain nouns differ in meaning depending on whether they take el or la.

el orden - order (arrangement); el capital - capital (money); el cura - priest
la orden - order (command); la capital - capital (city); la cura - cure

The Plural

1. Nouns ending in an unstressed vowel add s.

el libro - the book; los libros - the books

2. Nouns ending in a consonant add es.

el avión - the airplane; los aviones - the airplanes

3. Nouns ending in z change the z to c and then add es.

la luz - the light; las luces - the lights

4. Some nouns are unchanged in the plural.

martes - Tuesday or Tuesdays

The Possessive

English 's or s' is translated by de - of.

el libro de Juan - John's book (the book of John)
los libros de los niños - the boys' books

Adjectives

1. Adjectives come after the nouns and are masculine if the noun is masculine and plural if the noun is plural, etc.

   dos muchachos altos - two tall boys

2. Feminine endings

   a. If the ending is o, it becomes a.

      alto - alta; altos - altas

   b. In other cases, there is no change.

      grande - grande

   c. Adjectives of nationality add a or change o to a.

      español - española - Spanish

   d. Adjectives ending in an, on and or add a.

      encantador - encantadora - charming

3. The following adjectives drop the final o when they come before a masculine singular noun.

   uno - one; bueno - good; malo - bad; alguno - some one; ninguno - no one; primero - first; tercero - third

   Example: el mal tiempo - the bad weather

4. Grande becomes gran when it comes before a singular noun.

   un gran poeta - a great poet
   But
   un hombre grande - a large (tall) man

5. Santo becomes San when it comes before a noun (except those beginning in To and Do).

   San Juan; Santo Domingo

6. Ciento becomes cien before a noun.

cien dólares - a hundred dollars

Position of Adjectives

1. Descriptive adjectives usually follow the noun.

una casa blanca - a white house

2. Exceptions are adjectives which describe an inherent quality.

la blanca nieve - the white snow

3. Articles, numerals, possessives and quantitatives usually precede the noun.

un buen muchacho - a good boy; muchas personas - many people

4. Some descriptive adjectives can come either before or after the noun.

pequeña - little; hermoso - beautiful; linda - pretty; bueno - good; malo - bad; bonito - pr

5. A few adjectives have one meaning when they come before a noun and another when they follow.

un hombre pobre - a poor man; ¡Pobre hombre! - Poor man!
un hombre grande - a large (tall) man; un gran hombre - a great (important) man

Comparisons

1. Regular

fácil - easy; más fácil - easier; menos fácil - less easy; el más fácil - the easiest;
el menos fácil - the least easy

2. Irregular

bueno - good; mejor - better, best; malo - bad; peor - worse, worst;
mucho - much; más - more, most; poco - little; menos - less, least;
grande - great; mayor - older; más grande - larger, bigger;
pequeño - small; menor - younger; más pequeño - smaller

3. more (less)...than... = más (menos)...que...

El español es más fácil que el inglés. - Spanish is easier than English.

4. As...as... = tan...como... or tanto...como...

a. before an adjective or adverb

tan fácil como... - as easy as...

b. before a noun

Tiene tanto dinero como ud. - He has as much money as you.

5. The more (less)... the more (less)... = cuanto más (menos)... tanto más (menos)...

Cuanto más le trate tanto más le agradará. - The more you get to know him the more you like him.

6. most = -ísimo

Es muy útil. - It's very useful.
Es utilísimo. - It's most useful.

The -ísimo form never modifies another word.

Pronouns

1. Subject of a verb

yo - I; tú - you; él - he; usted - you (polite); ella - she; ello - it; nosotros - we (masc
nosotras - we (feminine); vosotras - you (feminine); vosotros - you (masculine); ellos - they (ma
line); ellas - they (feminine); ustedes - you (polite)

The personal pronouns are not ordinarily used.

hablo - I speak.
Yo hablo - I speak. (for emphasis or clearness)

2. After prepositions

para mí - for me; para tí - for you (familiar)

All other pronouns used after prepositions are the same as after a verb.

Exception: conmigo - with me; contigo - with you; consigo - with him

3. Direct objects

me - me; te - you (familiar); le - him, you (polite); la - her; lo - it; nos - us; os - you; los - them, you (polite); las - them (feminine)

4. Indirect objects

me - to me; te - to you (familiar); le - to him, her, you (polite); nos - to us; os - to you; les - to them (masculine and feminine), to you (masculine and feminine) (polite)

Example: le doy - I give it to him, her, you.
les doy - I give it to them, you (plural).
Or
le doy a él, ella, usted, ellos, ellas, ustedes.
Le escribí a María ayer. - I wrote to Mary yesterday.

5. Reflexive pronouns

me - myself; te - yourself (familiar); se - himself, herself, yourself (polite); nos - ourselves os - yourselves; se - themselves, yourselves (polite)

Me siento. - I sit down.
Se ha roto el brazo. - He broke his arm.

Position of Pronouns

1. When there are both direct and indirect object pronouns in a sentence, the Spanish order is the reverse of the English.

1 2 2 1
He gives it to me. - Me lo da.
But
If both begin with l, the indirect (le, les) becomes se.

Se lo diré. - I will tell it to him, her, you, etc.

2. When se is present, it comes before the other conjunctive pronouns. It means:

   a. an impersonal action

      Se dice. - It is said.

   b. a personal object

      Se lo dice. - He says it to him, her, himself, herself, etc.

3. Object pronouns come before the verb.

   Le veo. - I see him.

   They come after an infinitive or present participle.

   tenerlo - To have it.; dárselo - To give it to him.; teniéndolo - Having it.; Estoy mirándole. - I am looking at him.

   Object pronouns follow affirmative commands.

   Tómalo. - Take it. - Tómalo if using the familiar form, but Tómelo if the formal.

   They come before negative commands.

   No me lo diga Vd. - Don't tell me.

4. Te and os precede all pronouns except se.

   Te lo diré. - I will tell it to you.

   But

   Se te dijo. - It was told to you.

5. Le, lo, la, les, los, and las take the last place before the verb.

   Yo se lo doy. - I give it to him.

Conjunctions

y - and; o - or; pero - but; mas - but; que - that; pues - since, as; si - if; por que - why; porque - because; ni...ni... - neither...nor...

1. y - and

Roberto y Juan son hermanos. - Robert and John are brothers.

e is used in place of y before a word beginning with i or hi.

María e Isabel son primas. - Mary and Elizabeth are cousins.
Madre e hija. - Mother and daughter.

2. o - or

Cinco o seis pesos - Five or six pesos

u is used instead of o before a word beginning with o or ho.

Siete u ocho horas - Seven or eight hours

3. pero - but

Quiero venir pero no puedo. - I want to come but I can't.

4. mas - but is more formal and literary.

Pensé que vendría mas no pudo. - I thought he would come but he wasn't able to.

5. sino - but is used instead of pero after a negative statement.

No es francés sino inglés. - He is not French but English.

Question Words

¿Qué? - What?; ¿Por qué? - Why?; ¿Cómo? - How?; ¿Cuánto? - How much?; ¿Cuál? - What? Which one?; ¿Quién? - Who?; ¿Dónde? - Where?; ¿Cuándo? - When?

Notice that the question words are written with an accent.

Adverbs

1. Spanish - mente corresponds to -ly in English. It is added to the feminine form of the adjective.

exclusivamente - exclusively

Where there are two adverbs, the ending -mente is added only to the last one.

clara y concisamente - clearly and concisely

Adverbs are compared like adjectives.

positive	alegremente	cheerfully
comparative	más alegremente	more cheerfully
superlative		most cheerfully

2. Irregular Comparatives

Positive	Comparative
bien - well	mejor - better, best
mal - badly	peor - worse, worst
mucho - much	más - more, most
poco - little	menos - less, least

3. Adverbs into Prepositions

Many adverbs act as prepositions when de is added.

Adverb: después - afterwards
Preposition: después de las cinco - after five o'clock

When que is added they act as conjunctions.

después de que venga - after he comes

Other words which act similarly: antes - before; cerca - near; delante - before (in front of); enfrente - opposite

4. Here and There

Spanish has two words for here and three words for there.

Aquí - here refers to something near the speaker.
Acá - here expresses motion toward the speaker.

Ahí - there refers to something near the person spoken to.
Allá - there indicates motion away from the speaker.
Allí - there refers to something remote from both.

Diminutives and Augmentatives

The endings -ito (-cito, -ecito), -illo (-cillo, -ecillo), -uelo (-zuelo, -ezuelo) imply smallness.

In addition, -ito often implies attractiveness or admiration, -illo and -uelo unattractiveness or depreciati
(They should be used with care.)

The endings -ón (ona) and -ote indicate largeness (often awkwardness and unattractiveness as well).

Demonstratives

1. Adjectives

a. Spanish demonstrative adjectives usually precede the nouns they modify and always agree in gender and number.

este muchacho - this boy; aquellos vecinos - those neighbors

b. Ese and aquel both mean that. Aquel points out a thing removed in space or time from the speaker or from the person spoken to.

Esa señora es muy amable. - This lady is very kind.
Aquel señor que llegó el mes pasado. - That gentleman who arrived last month.

2. Pronouns

The same difference exists between the pronouns ése and aquél as between the adjectives ese and aqu

Negation

1. In Spanish the no or not comes before the verb.

No veo. - I don't see.

2. There are two forms for nothing, never, no one, etc. - one with and one without no.

No veo nada. - I see nothing.; No voy nunca. - I never go.; No viene nadie. - No one comes.
Or
Nada veo. - I see nothing.; Nunca voy. - I never go.; Nadie viene. - No one comes.

Word Order

1. The usual order in Spanish is: subject - verb - adverb - object.

Juan vió allí a sus amigos. - John saw his friends there.

2. The tendency in Spanish is to put the longer member of the sentence or the emphasized part last.

¿Compro la casa su señor padre? - Did your father buy the house?

3. As in English, questions sometimes have the same order as statements but with the question intonation (that is, with a rise in pitch at the end).

¿Juan va a ir allí? - John is going to go there?

4. However, the more usual way of asking a question is to put the subject after the verb.

¿Va a ir allí Juan? - Is John going to go there?

5. Adjectives come right after ser - to be.

¿Es tarde? - Is it late?

The Tenses of the Verb

Spanish verbs are divided into three classes according to their infinitives:

Class I - hablar - to speak; Class II - comer - to eat; Class III - vivir - to live

The present can be translated in several ways.

Hablo español. (I speak Spanish.
(I am speaking Spanish. - Estoy hablando español.
(I do speak Spanish.

Passive Voice

The passive in Spanish is used as in English. Very often, however, Spanish used the reflexive where English uses the passive.

Aquí se habla español. - Spanish spoken here.

"To Be"

There are two words in Spanish for to be: ser and estar. In general, ser indicates a permanent state (I'm an American), estar a temporary one (I'm tired).

Ser

1. Mi hermano es alto. - My brother is tall.
2. is used with a predicate noun, in which case it links two equal things.

   El es médico. - He is a doctor.
3. is used with an adjective to indicate an inherent quality.

   El libro es rojo. - The book is red.
4. is used with pronouns.

   Soy yo. - It's I.
5. indicates origin, source or material.

   ¿De dónde es Ud.? - Where are you from?
6. indicates possession.

   ¿De quién es esto? - Whose is this?
7. is used in telling time.

   Es la una. - It's one o'clock.

8. is used to indicate cost.

Son a quince centavos la docena. - They are fifteen cents a dozen.

9. is used in impersonal constructions.

Es tarde. - It's late.

Estar

1. expresses position or location.

Está allí. - He's over there.

2. indicates a temporary quality or characteristic.

Estoy cansado. - I'm tired.

3. to form the present progressive tense.

Están hablando. - They are talking.

4. in the expression - How are you? etc.

¿Cómo está Ud.?

Some adjectives may be used with either ser or estar with a difference in meaning.

El es malo. - He is bad.; El está malo. - He is sick.; Es pálida. - She has a pale complexion.; Está pálida. - She is pale (at this moment).

With ser	With estar
bueno - good	well, in good health
listo - clever	ready, prepared
cansado - tiresome	tired
Notice the following differences:	¿Como es? - What's it like?
	¿Como esta? - How is it?

Major Sound Problems

1. He is thinking.
   He is sinking. (Spanish approximation)

2. I am living.
   I am leaving.

3. I watched the baby.
   I washed the baby.

4. They saw the cat.
   They saw the cot.

5. I like jello.
   I like yellow.

Consonant Sound Problems

1. "th" as in "thin" - "sin" in Spanish production

2. "th" as in "this" - "dis" in Spanish production

3. "s" as in "rise" - "rice" in Spanish production

4. "v" as in "vote" - "boat" in Spanish production

5. "ch" as in "chew" - "shoe" in Spanish production

6. "y" as in "yellow" - "jello" in Spanish production

Vowel Sound Problems

1. "a" as in "cat" - "cot" in Spanish production

2. "ee" as in "leave" - "live" in Spanish production

3. "i" as in "live" - "leave" in Spanish production
4. "oo" as in "pool" - "pull" in Spanish production
5. "u" as in "pull" - "pool" in Spanish production

Problems in Rhythm

1. In English we space our stress at regular intervals between accented syllables.
   2 4 6
   The man / lives on the farm / next to my uncle's house. (2 syllables, 4 syllables, 6 syllables take about the same length of time.)

   In Spanish the tendency is to produce all syllables at the same rate of speed.

2. Stress Placement:

English speaker	Spanish speaker
a péach	á peach
an ápple	án apple
the grápes	thé grapes

Possessive adjectives, prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns are stressed by the Spanish speaker but not by the English speaker.

The verb "to be" and auxiliary verbs:

English speaker	Spanish speaker
I am wálking.	I ám walking.
We are hére.	We áre here.

Problems in Intonation

The intonational patterns of English and Spanish differ and the Spanish speaker will carry over his intonational patterns into English.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PATTERNS DIFFICULT FOR NATIVE SPEAKERS OF SPANISH

The following is a list of English language patterns that present difficulty to the native Spanish-speaking person, and they require REPEATED ORAL PRACTICE.

DID YOU KNOW THAT:

1. The pronoun "it" in Spanish is often omitted -- "It is Tuesday" becomes "Is Tuesday" because the "it" is included in the verb.

2. We say, "The boy is tall." In Spanish the adjective follows the noun. They say, "The boy tall."

3. The subject pronoun is not usually expressed in Spanish. "She is pretty" becomes "Is pretty.'

4. In Spanish the negative "no" is placed before the verb. "Maria not is here."

5. Using "er" as a comparative form of the adjective is foreign to the Spanish-speaking child. "My house is bigger than yours" becomes "My house is more big."

6. "Ed" added to the base verb is completely unrelated to the Spanish past tense, nor do they have the consonant combination "kt" as in "walked" and "ld" as in "called."

7. "Do," "does" and "did" are not used in the auxiliary form in Spanish. "Do not Run" becomes "not run."

8. Spanish has no auxiliary equivalent to our "will." Their verb forms express the future. The one word "hablaro" means "I will talk."

9. The Spanish pattern of identification does not require the article. "She is a nurse" becomes "She is nurse."

10. Spanish uses the article "the" instead of the possessive "my" for parts of the body. "My head hurts" becomes "The head hurts."

11. The article "the" is used in titles when in a sentence that is not in direct

address. "Mrs. Holmes is a teacher" becomes "The Mrs. Holmes is teacher."

12. In Spanish the word "en" means either "in" or "on"; therefore, "The ball is in the box" could also mean "The ball is on the box," and "The box is on the table" could mean "The box is in the table."

13. The verb "to have" is used instead of the verb "to be" in many cases. "I am thirsty" becomes "I have thirst." "I am six years old" becomes "I have six years."

14. "It is cold" becomes "Makes cold."

15. The English pattern "Where does your cousin live?" becomes "Where lives your cousin?" (See number 7)

16. The apostrophe "s" is a real difficulty because the Spanish-speaking child uses a phrase to indicate ownership. "The girl's doll" becomes "The doll of the girl."

17. The direct object pronoun is used in a pre-verb position. "I see it" becomes "I it see."

18. The indirect pronoun is used also in a pre-verb position. "I gave him the book" becomes "I him gave the book."

19. In question forms this is what happens: "Is the house big?" becomes "Is big the house?" or simply "The house is big?" using a declarative sentence with a rising intonation.

20. In English we say, "The big, new house." In Spanish the adjectives are placed after the noun and are joined by the word "and." "The house big and new."

STRATEGY

Grammatical structures are the core of the language. Words remain as simple labels for features of the environment without the syntactic patterns of the language. The problem is how we can get the students to learn the grammar of the foreign or second language so that it functions effectively for them in communication.

The place of this aspect of language will depend on the point of view or approach to second or foreign language learning. There are two basic approaches to language learning. One is the behaviorist theory, the other is the transformationalist theory of grammar.

The behaviorist theory of stimulus-response learning represented by B. F. Skinner states that all learning is done through the establishment of habits as the result of reinforcements or rewards. According to this theory, the infant makes a sound which resembles an appropriate word in the language of his parents. This action is rewarded approvingly by those about him, thus increasing the probability of producing the same group of sounds in a similar situation. Through this same process, the child learns to make finer and finer discriminations until his utterances match those of the speech community in which he is growing up.

The behaviorist approach has been rejected by some linguists such as Chomsky who maintains that there are certain

aspects of language learning which reject the idea of the habit formation theory. Chomsky maintains that man has certain innate propensities for learning a language. Child language learning is not a process of simple imitation but seems to involve active selection of proper utterances. The followers of this theory point out that children add endings to nonsense words in a way which they have never heard before, and as children master various aspects of syntax, they produce novel utterances. The child seems to internalize at a very early stage the most complicated system of grammar and produces any number of new utterances he has not heard before. This is possible because the child possesses an innate logical structure in his nervous system which conforms to the organization underlying his language. Thus the child identifies the basic system, developing from there on his mastery of the language. Lenneberg states: "Obviously children are not given rules they can apply. They are merely exposed to a great number of examples of how the syntax works, and from these examples they completely automatically acquire principles with which new sentences can be formed that will conform to the universally recognized rules of the game --- words are neither randomly arranged nor confined to unchangeable, stereotyped sequences. At every stage there is a characteristic structure. The appearance of language may be thought to be due to an innately mapped-in program for behavior, the exact realization of the program being dependent upon

the peculiarities of the (speech) environment."[24]

The supporters of the habit formation theory see language as primarily speech and, therefore, the most effective way of laying the foundation for language skills is through the study of language material orally. They consider language as a complex of patterns of smaller and larger elements (morphemes, words, phrases...). These elements are in tight functional relationships. Mastery of these language patterns is achieved through the formation of habits by means of reinforcement in speech situations. Consequently, they reject the idea of teaching language by means of detailed explanations on the functioning of its system. Many linguists agree on this point, believing that intellectual analysis of the language system only produces hesitancy in the language learner at the point of choice. On the other hand, the fluent speaker of a language produces language elements in a correct sequence with hesitancy due to the unbuilt language patterns and associations.

The language teaching technique recommended by the proponents of this habit formation approach are based on drilling and memorization: Dialogue memorization, the learning of structural patterns, choral and individual oral drills, and practice with minimal variations. The speech situations are totally controlled and structured in order to reduce incorrect responses from the learners. The student's correct answer is rewarded or reinforced, while the incorrect response

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[24] Lenneberg (1964), pp. 599-600.

is inhibited.

According to the rule-governed behavior theory, language is not only patterned, but the patterns manifest the closely interwoven set of rules which govern the language system and make possible acceptable and comprehensible utterances. Language is too complicated to be learned by simple imitation and repetition. It is not logical to suppose that a child learns all the possible utterances of the language by mere repetition.

It is a fact that children do produce utterances they have never heard before. This is possible because the child develops a clear picture of the language system. From the language examples that the child is presented in the everyday speech situation, he is able to acquire the language principles governing the system. This is done in an automatic manner. Once the learner understands the possible extensions and limitations of the language interrelationships, he is able to make higher-level choices which set lower-level patterns in operation. In other words, he selects the rule or principle which applies the correct language pattern in a specific speech-situation.

This view then emphasizes the teaching of the basic language principles or rules so that the learner may be able to create new utterances. It has been observed that speakers trained in this method pause before producing an utternace in order to select the proper rule. Because of the large number of rules and their complexity, their speech production are rarely correctly formed in all details.

The fact that these two points of view differ in their interpretation of language acquisition doesn't mean that the teacher will reject one for the other. Persons acquire second or foreign languages successfully by a wide variety of methods.

There are certain elements of language which are fixed and do not require intellectual analysis: they are there and the speaker must use them. Examples of these elements are the inflections for the plural and the agreement of verb and subject. The teacher can approach such elements with the drill techniques.

But there are speech situations in which the speaker has to make a series of decisions involving selection of the correct lexical elements in the correct syntactic order with the right intensity to be able to describe or express something which has taken place. This is the higher level decision which sets in motion the lower levels (structural patterns, lexical elements, etc.) of the language. This situation can be handled by the teacher by the deductive approach recommended by the transformationalists. Practice at this level involves total understanding of the language system and its implications in a speech-situation.

Thus, when teaching a foreign or second language, the teacher must be able to control the learning in the classroom by deductive and inductive approaches. Without doubt, before the students are ready for the more intellectual analysis for the language system, they must master the basic lower patterns and structures of the language. This is why drilling and induction are so important in the beginning stages of language learning.

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PATTERN DRILLS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING AND REMEDIATION

There are three basic approaches to the analysis of syntax:

A. Tagmemic theory.

B. Immediate constituent theory.

C. Transformational grammar.

The tagmemic theory is also called the "slot and filler theory" because it visualizes a speech utterances as a frame formed by slots. These slots or spaces are filled with words which have a determined function. A frame is a particular language pattern.

With the tagmemic theory, the teacher can use a particular pattern drill to teach language structures. Once the teacher has selected a particular frame or pattern to be taught, he can drill his students to substitute the lexical item in each slot with a variety of fillers as long as these fillers carry the same syntactic function.

Frame: The boy is tall.

SLOTS

In this type of drill, the changing of one filler in a slot may cause some other slot filler to change in order to maintain consistency as in the case of singular-plural adjustments. The purpose of this drill is to help the language learner concentrate on a particular structure in different lexical contents.

Cue words or expressions are given to achieve the desired change in the next step of the drill.

Frame: The girl is small.
Teacher: "Boy"
Student: The boy is small.

The theory of immediate constituents is concerned with the hierarchical nature of language structure. This theory concentrates on the structural meaning of grammar and by this they mean the relationship among the elements in an utterance. Syntactical relationships such as these between phrases, or between words in a phrase, are identified first. Larger entities are broken down into smaller constituents until no further division can be undergone. Below the word level, segments of words are identified as morphemes, that is, the smallest elements which carry meaning:

EX: boy + s
s: morpheme for plural

These structural grammars have had great impact in the structuring of pattern drills. Functional features are isolated from patterns or structures and the student is taught to create new utterances in response to a formal cue. Students are shown how to expand, contract, or combine utterances in specific ways.

According to transformational grammar, the native speaker of a language has internalized the complex system of rules which govern the language. The supporters of this theory study carefully beneath the surface structure of an utterance to find the deep structure. Every utterance can be analyzed through successive transformations until the base structure is reached. These base structures are what they call kernel sentences, which are the most basic patterns or structures of the language and which undergo specific transformations in order to create new utterances. A grammar for foreign or second language teaching built on the transformational principles would be designed to establish the ability to recognize and generate grammatical sentences in the foreign language, not parrot utterances produced by the teacher. Pattern drills which derive from this theory are transformations of sentence patterns from declarative to interrogative, from positive to negative, from active to passive. Question-answer dialogues are also a form of transformation drill.

In short, students must move from the mechanical stage of producing utterances by analogy. They must construct utterances according to the system of the language they are learning, but without conscious attention to the rules applied. This will, of course will take time.

There is, however, no exclusively correct or unique approach in teaching or remediating formal language to

to linguistically different children. But whatever method employed, teaching techniques that stress the visual, the physical, and the active must be used as much as possible.

CHAPTER III

THE STRUCTURE: MAKING AUTOMATIC THE USE OF THE DEVICES OF ARRANGEMENT AND FORM

Whenever the learning or the teaching of a foreign language is being discussed, someone is sure to insist that we ought always to proceed in the "natural" way in which a child first learns his own language. This so-called "natural" way of learning a language, although it differs in a variety of features in the minds of its supporters, nearly always means "no grammar." The child, it is said, learns his language by pure oral imitation and does not come to a study of grammar until at least seven or eight years after he has learned to speak and several years after he has learned to read. Many believe that, even at that time, the grammar studied contributes nothing to the effectiveness of his use of language.[1] The conflict over the value of the study of grammar, both that of the native language and that of a foreign language, has continued with vigor for more than half a century and still rages violently. Part of the difficulty arises from the fact that "grammar" means very different materials to different persons. To some who have studied Latin by memorizing paradigms for the various declensions and conjugations and by the rote learning of rules such as that the ablative not the accusative case is used with utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor--for these, grammar often means a set of rigmaroles, or nonsense words and syllables in a series. For those English speaking children who have studied English by diagramming sentences, by "parsing," by memorizing logical definitions of the "parts of speech" and the "rules" by which to measure the "correctness" of every construction,[2] "grammar" is remembered as a highly abstract and intricate subject that has never had any really vital relation to their own practical use of their native language, except to give them a distrust of their natural way of talking and make them feel that neither they nor the people about them speak "correct" English. For others, who forget that the grammatical apparatus used in our school texts grew up in connection with the study of the Greek and Latin languages, "grammar" is regarded as a body of "philosophical" material equally applicable to all languages--"universal grammar, the grammar of any language."[3]

If by "grammar" we mean any of these things--the memorizing of paradigms, or the logical analysis of sentences, or the learning of the rules of a philosophical or universal grammar, then we can easily agree that we must approach a new language by a more "natural" method. But

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[1]See, for example, such statements as the following.

a) "The reaction against English grammar arose from the knowledge that the formal work in the subject that was being done was of small practical value. A further influence resulted from investigations tending to show that grammar provides little mental discipline of a general character."

Reorganization of English in the Secondary Schools, Department of Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin (1917), Vol. 2, p. 37.

b) "There is no scientific evidence of the value of grammar which warrants its appearance as a prominent or even distinct feature of the course of study."

An Experience Curriculum in English, A Report of a Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English, W. W. Hatfield, Chairman (1935), p. 228.

[2]See for example the view expressed by W. W. Charters in his book, Teaching the Common Branches (New York, The Macmillan Co., Rev. ed. 1924), pp. 96, 98, 115. "Grammar consists of a series of rules and definitions. Since...ninety-five percent of all children and teachers come from homes or communities where incorrect English is used, nearly everyone has before him the long hard task of overcoming habits set up early in life before he studied grammar in school."

[3]Mortimer J. Adler, "What is Basic about English?" in College English, Vol. 2 (1941), p. 664.

"grammar" from the point of view of modern linguistic science means something entirely different from any of the matters enumerated above and it can be used in a manner that does not in the least conflict with the so-called "natural" way in which a child develops in the grasp of his native language. The assertion that a child simply imitates that which he hears seems to be a mistake. It is not uncommon for a child of two or three years of age to use such forms as "He knowed it" or "They swimmed fast" or "three mans" or "two tooths." I have many records of such instances in which it is reasonably certain that the children have never heard these forms before they used them. Forms like knowed and swimmed are produced because the children have grasped (unconsciously of course) the "pattern" of form which English uses regularly in expressions of past time and have extended it to words that are exceptions to the pattern. In similar fashion, forms like mans or tooths are applications of the pattern which English uses in plural expressions. The child, in his learning of language, like anyone else who learns a language, does not simply repeat what he has heard; he soon learns the patterns of form and arrangement by which the "words" are put together and is then free to employ a great variety of content in these molds or frames. These patterns of form and arrangement are the grammar of the language and although a child or a native speaker is not conscious of them, they are nevertheless there, fashioning the utterances, and must be learned if the language is to be used. The question then is not whether one should learn a new language without learning the grammar of that new language. That is an impossibility. The question is whether, for an adult, the guiding of his practice through one pattern at a time and a conscious grasping of these patterns as a summary of that practice will not make more rapid and efficient his mastery of a new language. Even if one insists that the conscious formulation of the patterns involved is unnecessary, there is no escaping the need for learning them and in that learning the student will progress more satisfactorily if his efforts are channelled to avoid confusion, if he does not try to attack all the diverse complexity of the structure of a language at the same time.

The devices of arrangement and form that constitute the grammatical materials of a language are just as necessary to express meaning as are the words, of which we are more conscious. If I am to say anything useful about a man and a bear and the act of killing, the three words, kill, man, bear, are alone not enough. There must be some method or device for pointing out the performer of the act and distinguishing him from the one upon whom the act is performed. In the arrangement man kill bear the man performs the act, but in the reverse order bear kill man the bear does the killing. Then too, the forms of man and bear as distinct from men and bears show that but one man and one bear are involved rather than several. If the form killed were used, that form would express the fact that the killing occurred sometime in the past rather than in the present. There is thus essential meaning in the forms of some of the words in English--forms that are significant by virtue of the fact that they contrast with other forms in a pattern felt by the native users of the language. In similar fashion there is essential meaning in the positions that certain words occupy in contrast with other positions--"The man killed the bear" in contrast with "The bear killed the man"; "the station bus" in contrast with "the bus station"; "an awful pretty hat" in contrast with "a pretty awful hat."

In addition to the meanings that are expressed by the forms of the words and by the order of the words, there are also grammatical or functional meanings, somewhat like those indicated above, that are shown by separate words. Such words often have no other meaning than the grammatical or functional one. For that reason I speak of them as "function words." In the sentence "the man killed the bear," the suffix [d] (spelled -ed) on the word kill adds the meaning that the action occurred some time in the past. In the sentence "The man will kill the bear" the separate word will, in this position, performs a function much like that of the suffix in the preceding sentence; it adds the meaning that the action has not yet occurred but is going to occur later. In similar fashion, in the sentence "The man has killed the bear," the word has, followed by the form of the word kill with a dental suffix, adds the meaning that the action is now completed. Thus also, in the sentence "The man has to kill the bear" the word has followed by the word to, adds the meaning that the action has not yet occurred, but that it is necessary for the

man to perform it. And, in the sentence "The man might kill the bear," the word might adds the meaning that the action has not occurred but that it is possible or even probable. Words of this kind, expressing a functional or grammatical meaning, are part of the structural devices which the English language uses.

To understand any language, therefore, it is not enough to know the "things" to which such words as table, chair, room, city, father, family, and disease refer; or to know the "actions" to which such words as go, come, walk, eat, smile, read, and conquer refer; or to know the "qualities" to which such words as black, easy, little, familiar, and expensive refer. One must also know very thoroughly the meanings carried by the various devices which the language uses to construct utterances with such "content" words as these. This "knowledge" need not be consciously formulated in order to use a language; it must, however, be so thorough that it functions automatically for a speaker or hearer in reacting to the clues furnished by the forms and arrangements of words. An adult can be helped considerably in building up the necessary habits if the basic matters of this required knowledge are definitely stated in generalizations for his guidance. Unless the experienced linguist does formulate or describe them for the learner, that learner either must attempt to grasp them for himself or approach a language as if it were a multitude of disparate items to be memorized.

The English language of today differs grammatically from the English of the years preceding 1000 A.D. Old English, like classical Latin, expressed practically all the categories and relationships of its grammar by means of the forms of the words. In the sentence "ðone beran se mann sloh" the form of the article, se, with the word mann as contrasted with the different form of the article, ðone, with the word beran furnishes us the necessary information that the man (se mann) performed the act and that the bear (ðone beran) was the one that was killed. The word order in the sentence has no significance whatever in respect to the expression of this relationship. In the equivalent modern English sentence, "The man killed the bear," the forms of the words the man and the bear have no significance for the expression of the fact that it was the man rather than the bear that performed the action. Modern English has thus lost certain word forms that in Old English carried essential structural meanings and has instead word order as one of the devices to express the same meanings. Even in the use of the few pronouns where such forms as me and him in contrast with I and he still exist, these forms do not carry the expression of the so-called "subject" or "object" relationship. It would never occur to the ordinary speaker of Present-day English to interpret the sentence "Him and me struck the man" in accord with the forms used, that is, that the man performed the action upon "him and me," as would have been done before the fifteenth century. Instead, we feel the expressive force of the word order so strongly that we ignore or deny the forms of the words and interpret "him and me" as the performers of the action upon "the man."

Present-day English not only has developed the device of word order instead of forms to show certain fundamental relationships it also has developed a wide use of function words. Some of these function words appeared in Old English but their use there was often simply in addition to the form which alone could express the relationship. With the verb say, for example, the dative form of the noun or pronoun for the person addressed was sufficient; the function word to was not necessary as it is in Present-day English.

"Se engel hire sægde ðæt heo sceolde modor beon Scyppendes."

["The angel her said that" ...]

"Sæge us ðæt hrædlice ..."

[Say us that quickly...][4]

[4] Blickling Homilies, 971 A.D., 9, 233.

Datives without the function word to also frequently preceded verbs as in

"Me was gegiefan an boc." [To me was given a book.]

"Hem nedede no help." [To them was necessary no help.]

"Me lakketh nothing." [To me is lacking nothing.]

Throughout the history of English there has been an increasing use of function words not only with substantives but also with verbs. This increasing use shows itself especially in the great variety of the "meanings," in which they appear. For the nine so-called "prepositions" that account for 92% of the occurrences of prepositions in Modern English, the Oxford English Dictionary lists and illustrates an exceedingly large number of separate senses for each one.

	Separately numbered senses given in the Oxford Dictionary[5]
at	39
by	39
for	31
from	15
in	40
of	63
on	29
to	33
with	40

The average number of separately numbered "senses" recorded and illustrated by the Oxford Dictionary for each of those nine words is thirty-six and a half.

It has frequently been urged that the use of function words such as these in place of the inflectional case forms of nouns makes for greater clarity of expression, as well as for greater ease.

"The general movement by which single words have in part taken the place of inflection is the most sweeping and radical change in the history of the Indo-European languages. It is at once the indication and the result of a clearer feeling of concept-relation. Inflection in the main rather suggests than expresses relations.... The adverb-preposition...serves as a definition of the meaning of the case form."[6]

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[5] See C. C. Fries, American English Grammar (Appleton-Century Co., 1940), pp. 110-114. Some examples of a variety of different meanings of the words of and with are the following.

"born of a kingly race"
"afraid of the dark"
"the love of God for us"
"a part of the land"
"a throne of gold"
"the city of Rome"
"a swallow of wine"
"accuse him of treason"
"rob me of my purse"
"a quarter of ten"
"to give of one's time"
"the commission of a crime"
"a book of his selection"

"Thy servant will fight with this Philistine."
"He will fight with me against the robbers."
"Who can compare with her in beauty."
"And tire the hearer with a book of words."
"I parted with them at the crossroads."
"He is sick with pneumonia."
"He is acquainted with many musicians."
"We had coffee with cream and sugar."

[6] E. P. Morris, On Principles and Methods in Latin Syntax (New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1901), pp. 102, 103, 104.

If one takes, as a test case, the function word of with its 63 recorded "senses," it is difficult to agree with the statement just quoted. It is true that the genitive inflection represented and still represents an extremely vague category covering a great variety of relations. But the situation is certainly not different when the word of is used instead of the genitive inflection. All the relations that are now or were formerly suggested for the nouns joined by the genitive inflection are now carried by the function word of. There is in the word of no clearer grasp of the relationship involved than there was in the genitive inflectional form. In fact, the situation with of is even worse, for the of carries not only all the relationships that words had which were connected with the genitive inflection, but, in addition, a great variety of relations that never had and do not now have any connection with the genitive. The use of function words with substantives is not in any way a clearer or a more precise stating of relationship than the use of case inflections; it is a different device the intricate uses of which must be learned not as vocabulary items but as part of the grammatical structure of English.

In similar fashion the function words used with verbs constitute a part of the grammatical features of English, expressing time notions as well as such attitudes as necessity, possibility, or determination. Several uses of the word have will serve as an illustration.

1. "The boy had a pencil." (The full word, signifying "possession.")
2. "The boy had had a pencil."
3. "The boy had to have a pencil."
4. "The boy had the teacher sharpen his pencil."
5. "The boy had to have the teacher sharpen his pencil."
6. "The boy had his pencil sharpened by the teacher."
7. "The boy had had his pencil sharpened by the teacher."
8. "The boy had to have his pencil sharpened by the teacher."
9. "The boy had had to have his pencil sharpened."

At present, then, in English there are three important devices to express structural meanings. In some respects these devices overlap and sometimes seem to be in conflict; but they are all used, and, operating together, they form the system of Modern English grammar. This system is used unconsciously by the native speaker of English because he learned it very early, but it is nevertheless intricate and complicated. English is by no means a "grammarless tongue."[7] Nevertheless, one frequently hears and sees statements like the following:

"The grammar of Old English was very difficult because most of the words had various endings that changed with the different uses of the words in the sentence. Our present-day grammar has become much simpler."[8]

I. no real sense can the change that has occurred be called a simplification of the grammar of English. What has acutally occurred has not been simply a levelling and loss of inflections; it has been a gradual displacing of certain types of inflections--not all--by other devices. If anything, the grammatical structure of Present-day English, with its use of these three types of structural devices, is more complex and more intricate than that of Old English.

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[7]"The 'Apology for Poetry' was published in 1595, and here we have the recognition nearly three hundred years ago of the fact in philology that English is a grammarless tongue. Sidney says, it 'wanteth,' that is it lacks, grammar.... He saw that in its lack of grammar was the glory and the strength of the English language, as well as its easy fitness to the everyday uses of common men."

Richard Grant White, Every-Day English (Houghton, Mifflin and Company, 1888), p. 282.

[8]Walcott, Thorpe, Savage, Growth in Thought and Expression (Banborn and Company, 1940), Book Two, p. 241.

A realistic "grammar" of Present-day English must consist of an accurate description of the structural system--of the devices used and the way they operate together to express the necessary structural meanings. Such a grammar will not attempt to legislate as to how native speakers of English should use the language; it will not attempt to apply a "logical" analysis in an effort to formulate standards of "correctness;" nor will it attempt a rationalizing explanation of the usages one finds. The only helpful "grammar" is one that accurately describes the facts; and the only "explanation" of these facts that has value is an historical account of their development. Such an historical record, although it may be interesting, is really irrelevant when actual practical mastery of Present-day English is the matter of chief concern.

A realistic description of the system of forms and function words and word order which is the grammar of Modern English needs to be both accurate and complete if it is to serve as an adequate source from which to draw the materials to be built into a series of practical lessons for the learner of English as a foreign language. But the materials to be used in any series of practical lessons for the early stages of learning the language, although they must be accurate for the purpose, should certainly not constitute a complete grammar of the English language. The student must not be confused by a variety of alternative modes of expression. The first consideration, therefore, must be given to a selection of the basic patterns essential to the production and recognition of English in the immediate situations in which the language is being learned.

In such a selection of patterns the needs of a speaker on the productive level differ from his needs on a receptive or recognition level. On a productive level he needs but one pattern for any situation. For example, he will be understood when he speaks even if he always uses only one way of indicating the future time of an action. The so-called "going-to" future will suffice for all occasions. It is a quite regular pattern with the appropriate form of the word *be* before it and the simple uninflected form of the verb following it, and it is not complicated with the kind of discussion and diverse usage that exists in respect to *shall* and *will*.

"I *am going to go* to Detroit tomorrow."
"He *is going to go* to Detroit next week."
"They *are going to go* to Detroit afterward."
"*Are* you *going to go* to Detroit soon?"

The pattern with "going to" is even more useful than the one with *shall* and *will* in the fact that it can also be used for a planned future in the past, as in, "They *were going to go* to Detroit last Wednesday when it rained." For the beginner in English this one pattern is sufficient on the productive level. There is no need at the beginning to confuse him with having him attempt to learn to use a variety of alternative patterns such as:

"I *shall go* to Detroit soon."
"He *will go* to Detroit tomorrow."
"He *is to go* to Detroit next week."
"They *were about to go* to Detroit last Wednesday when it rained."

In questions, likewise, there is no need to make an exception of the verb *have* and insist upon a productive mastery of "*Have you* a pencil?" "He *has not* a pencil," rather than "*Do* you *have* a pencil?" and "He *doesn't have* a pencil." The pattern with *do* applies satisfactorily to all verbs except *be*. The one relative pronoun *that* is sufficient. To seek in addition to teach the productive use of *who*, *whom*, and *which* as relatives creates unnecessary difficulties.

For the beginner, therefore, the number of structural patterns to be learned should be reduced to the basic minimum. On the productive level the mastery of alternative patterns provides an unnecessary burden that only delays progress toward the practical use of the language. In the choice of patterns to be mastered on this level, range of usefulness and regularity of form

constitute the two most important criteria. The student must know for instance, and be able to use, the word order patterns that English uses to express fundamental relationships. Very early for example, he must develop a habit of placing single word modifiers of substantives before the words they modify. He must not, as Spanish speakers frequently do, say "station bus" when he means the place at which the bus stops, "the bus station." Productively he needs but one pattern of order for phrases and clauses and not an exploration of the various positions in which particular phrases and clauses can stand. To make automatic one order for expressions of place, of manner, and of time--a single order that will always be correct--will serve a foreign speaker of English much more effectively than to know about all the occasions upon which native speakers may deviate from that order. The basic structural materials which the beginner must master on a productive level should include only those items that will provide one pattern for each of the situations in which the language is actually being used.

On the recognition level, however, the problem of selection is different. For production, the one pattern adopted need not be the most frequent. It is sufficient if it is of common occurrence. Range of usefulness, regularity, and even similarity to the structural devices of the native language of the learner, can appropriately constitute the criteria of selection. But for recognition, for understanding the language as used by English speakers, frequency of occurrence is a fundamental criterion of selection. It is not enough for the foreigner to be understood when he asks a question. He must be able to understand the flood of language that often comes in answer to his question. For a selection of what is important for study on this level the frequency counts that have been made of structural items furnish valuable data. As indicated above nine "prepositions" account for 92% of the occurrences of these function words in Present-day English. Seven "conjunctions" account for 85% of the instances found and five more, or twelve in all, account for approximately 93%.[9] The genitive inflection of nouns as compared with the use of the function word of in equivalent expressions is used in less than 5% of the instances. Expressions like "the family's annual income" are very infrequent compared with "The annual income of the family." The so-called noun adjunct in expressions like "the hospital gardens," "a university program," "the appropriations committee," "a plains Indian," and even "the Lane Hall discussion group program," is exceedingly common. The structural items chosen for the foreigner to master on the recognition level must include those that occur most frequently in the speech of native English speakers.

Even the basic structural matters, carefully selected so as to represent only the necessary useful minimum for productive mastery and the most frequent patterns for receptive recognition, cannot all be learned at once. The sequence of their presentation to a beginner demands careful planning in order to make that learning as efficient as possible. Usually the grammatical materials of lessons in English are organized about the inflectional forms as fundamental, especially about the inflectional forms of the verb. In this respect they still follow the procedure of treatments of Latin. Word order is dealt with only incidentally if at all. Function words, such as prepositions, are equated with similar words in the native language of the students, or, when wholly different, are treated as "idiomatic" phrases. Other function words, such as auxiliaries, are usually presented as part of the "inflectional" system of the verb, and those which do not fit such a system on a Latin model are usually ignored. Contrasting with this approach the basic organization of the grammatical materials in the texts published by the English Language Institute is essentially different. The treatment of word order constitutes the basis of the framework because English structure is so largely a matter of position and order.

Within the framework set up by the stress upon the important matters of word order, there are included those function words that are essential to the situations covered, and the forms necessary to operate the selected patterns. Volume I of the Intensive Course, for example, includes the function words do for questions and negative statements; be plus the -ing form for present time; going to for future; and in, on, at, beside, from, to, of, with substantives, for

[9] See American English Grammar, p. 206-209.

expressions of place, direction, and time. This volume includes only those inflectional forms that continue to live as vigorous patterns in present-day English--the singular and plural forms of nouns, and the present and preterit tense forms of verbs.

With the features of word order as the basis of the framework for the organization of the grammatical materials there is little danger that the student will be set to memorizing forms in isolation. To grasp a language effectively, complete utterances, whole sentences must become automatic. The important thing, therefore, in learning a language is not to know all the forms which a word like be or sing may have, but to learn to use whole expressions in which these words occur and to grasp the appropriate form of each as a necessary part of that whole expression. Whole utterances are of two kinds. There are formulas, like those of greeting and of leave taking, that allow little or no variation in the elements which constitute them. They must be learned and repeated without variation. Then there are those that vary in content; that is, they vary in the particular words of which they are formed, but the pattern or mold or structure which makes the words into meaningful utterances is the same. When a child says "My father gave me a sled," it is often impossible to know if he has ever heard precisely that utterance with those exact words. But he must have heard many times utterances made over this same pattern. It is the pattern, the arrangement and the appropriate forms of the words in that arrangement, which has become automatic and he freely uses it with all sorts of diverse content. The student learning English must constantly practice whole utterances until the repetition makes these utterances so familiar that production of them becomes automatic.

Thus the grammar materials are not to be organized and set forth as rules and illustrations of these rules. They must be incorporated in sentences to be practiced and repeated until the structural patterns become so fixed that all expression in the new language will follow these channels without conscious choice. In the texts of the English Language Institute these structural patterns are in most instances pointed out and described, but a study of the statements of the patterns, making them matters of conscious knowledge, must never be allowed to become a substitute for practice of the sentences themselves. The statements become valuable only insofar as they guide the practice exercises of the student and provide for him the knowledge that will give him assurance in his use of the language.

These practice exercises (whole sentences to be repeated in situations that give their content real meaning) in order to be most effective, must employ only a limited vocabulary in the first stages of the work. That vocabulary should have special relevance to the situation in which the learning of English is going forward in order that the burden of mastering it may be minimized. The special efforts of the learning process must concentrate upon making automatic the essential features of arrangement and form and function word, not upon extending control over a content vocabulary. Accuracy in the habitual use of structural patterns must precede fluency. Laying the basis for the developing of a satisfactory control of a "good" English requires postponing for a bit the effort to achieve familiarity with any great range of vocabulary items for situations outside those of immediate concern to the English work. Thus, at the end of a two months session of our Intensive Course we do not expect those who began with no English to be able to speak with fluency and understand without hesitation on all occasions, no matter what the content of the discourse. Thorough mastery of vocabulary content, as I have insisted above in Chapter I, and as I hope to show more fully in the next chapters, requires much more time and special experience. But we do expect even beginners in English, by the end of two months in the Intensive Course, to have grasped in the form of habits, the fundamental patterns of English structure, and thus to have laid the foundations upon which they can with confidence build and proceed to extend rapidly and easily their knowledge and use of new content words.

In accord with what has been said above (Chapter I) concerning the "oral approach" the structural materials of the lessons in the courses of the English Language Institute are never assigned for silent study in advance of the class hour. The whole sentences for practice and repetition, through which the structural patterns of arrangement and form and function word are to

become habits, must first be heard as spoken by the teacher or informant, or as reproduced from mechanical records. The sounds themselves and the covering patterns of intonation and rhythm are essential features of these utterances and must always be learned as part of the whole. The "Pattern Practices" of our texts aim especially at achieving this sort of integration, but all the practice of the student should seek to reproduce whole utterances. The significant features of sound as well as those of arrangement and form constitute the pattern to be acquired.

The adult need not repeat the slow processes of the child, when he attempts to learn a foreign language. Instead of the haphazard mixture of structural patterns that confront the child in the speech of those around him, in which the occurrence or the repetition of a particular pattern is a matter of chance, it is possible to have a series of practice exercises which begin with the fundamental structural patterns of the language, which provide sufficient repetition of each pattern to develop a habit, and which are arranged in such a sequence as to lead the student systematically through the whole range of devices which form the complicated structural machinery of a language. These structural exercises should in their content, as far as possible, have practical relevance to the circumstances of the situations in which the student is actually living in order that they may avoid artificiality and gain their meaning from immediate experience. In order to teach Latin Americans to use the structural devices of American English, the courses of the English Language Institute have followed in general the steps described in the following paragraphs.

(1) Concerning the materials that must come first there can be but little difference of opinion. In English there can be no meaningful productive expression whatever and no understanding of the utterances of English speakers without a familiarity with the basic word order patterns of statements, questions, and requests or directives. For statements there must be both a substantive and a verb and the order is primarily the substantive first and the verb next.

"The dog barks."
"The boys whistled."
"The man fell down."
"He is ready."

For questions there must also be both a substantive and a verb, but the order is primarily verb first and substantive after it. "Is he ready?" If, however, the verb is not *be* but a single word like *whistled*, or *fell*, or *barks*, then the effect of the reversal of order is attained by the use of the function word *do* and the simple or "dictionary" form of the full verb, with the word *do* bearing the formal verbal characteristics of tense.

"*Did* the boy whistle?"
"*Does* the dog bark?"
"*Did* the man fall down?"

For requests or directives the simple, uninflected form of the verb is sufficient without a preceding or following substantive.

"Come here."
"Be ready."
"Whistle."
"Fall down."

For the satisfactory operation of these basic sentence patterns the special formal characteristics of substantives--inflection for number and the articles *the* and *a*--are essential, as are also the special formal characteristics of the verb--the regular inflection for tense. Especially useful also are the present tense forms of *be* with the *-ing* form of verbs, including the *going to* future.

In addition to the basic patterns of statements, questions, and requests, the first materials must also include the significant word order of modifiers. The positions of the modifiers of substantive nouns are fixed, with single word modifiers tending always to modify the words that follow and word groups modifying the words that precede.

"The // two / hundred / very / important / army / officers // of that division / whose names are on the list."

These matters of sentence pattern and word order for modification within the sentence, together with the two sets of essential forms--number and tense--must become automatic habits both for the receptive understanding of English and for the production of English that will be understood. The practical exercises to accomplish this end constitute the first step in all our courses.

(2) Probably not so basically essential for the simplest expression and understanding but certainly necessary for any communication in English above the very simple level are the materials of our second step. Like those included in the preceding section these also are matters that require mastery for production as well as for recognition. They include those sentence patterns that require function words, such as (a) questions with interrogative words and questions included in larger structures, (b) requests with polite forms and proposals including the speaker, (c) statements with substitute words and statements of comparison, and finally (d) included word groups or "clauses" as modifiers of nouns, as modifiers of adjectives, and as complements expressing time, purpose, cause, result, comparison, concession, condition, etc. They also include the most important and most frequently used function words with substantives in expressions of place, direction, time, means, etc. The forms to be included at this level are also very few and consist of the irregular preterits, such as rode, sang, grew, stood, spoke, held; the forms of adjectives used in expressions of comparison, like softer, clearer, hardest, most; and the genitive forms of both pronouns and nouns, such as my, his, John's, boy's, man's, and mine, ours, theirs. With the structural materials indicated in these first two steps so thoroughly mastered that they automatically channel the expression of the learner, the foundation has been laid for satisfactory productive competence in English.

(3) For the third step we include those items which are essential for recognition because of their great frequency of occurrence. Although we do not strive for a productive mastery of these materials in the early stages of learning English, they naturally become productive items for those who have advanced beyond the beginner's level. These include especially the function words with verbs, the uses of have and had with past participle to express completed action; the uses of may, can, must, might, should, could, would, with the simple, uninflected form of the verb to express various attitudes toward actions; the alternative but common patterns for the expression of the future, for customary action, for repeated and continued action, and for necessity.

(4) It is not enough that the structural patterns of English function through conscious choice; they must become matters of habit productively and receptively. They must function automatically when the attention is centered wholly upon meaning and not at all upon the mechanics of the language. Our fourth step, therefore, attempts not only to provide practice of limited patterns in single utterances in which there is a complete integration of all that has been learned, but to stimulate the students to use their knowledge and new-formed habits of structure in longer contexts and more sustained discourse. Accuracy must come first, but fluency within the limited productive structures and particular vocabulary areas becomes a major aim after the earlier stages have been passed.

On the whole the structural uses of word order, of function words, and of inflectional forms in present-day English are complicated and difficult for one whose native language is Spanish, or Turkish, or Chinese. The special difficulties differ with the various linguistic backgrounds of the learners. Sound and satisfactory materials through which to develop the necessary

mastery of English structural patterns must rest upon an adequate scientific analysis of English and a careful comparison of the results of this analysis with those of a similar analysis of the native language of the students. But these analyses and their comparison will be of little practical aid to ordinary students unless they are built into lessons to furnish the exercises through which the necessary habits can be formed. As an illustration of the specific content of such lessons in accord with the principles urged in this book there is included in the Appendix (pp. 123 to 135) an outline of the "Grammar Lessons" of the Intensive Course which the English Language Institute has used during the past three years. In addition, the Appendix also includes several lessons, given in full, from the Institute text for beginners, Inglés por Práctica.